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SCHOOL AND SOCIETY

Volume XXVI SATURDAY, NOVEMBER 12, 1927 Number 672

THE MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN AMERICAN EDUCATION

"As wine and oil are imported to us from abroad, so must ripe understanding, and many civil virtues, be imported into our minds from foreign writings—we shall else miscarry still, and come short in the attempts of any great enterprise," wrote John Milton many years ago. His words were directed to Englishmen of the seventeenth century, but they are just as applicable, in my opinion, to twentieth century Americans.

"Ripe understanding, and many civil virtues . . . from foreign writings." Is it a new or unusual conception of education which regards the ideal educative process as a gradual broadening of interests in the world about us, beginning with the near and familiar and extending as widely into space and time as opportunity and capacity will permit? Does not this conception of education lie back of some of the best present-day practice, as exemplified in such noteworthy educational undertakings as the Lincoln School in New York City and—in part, at least—Dr. Meiklejohn's experiment with the freshman and sophomore years at the University of Wisconsin? And if, in proceeding from near to remote, we aim to "orient" the maturing child as a member of a family, of a community, of a nation and of society in general, does not this conception of education logically bring within the purview of the educationally-minded the value of the study of modern foreign languages as a natural step? After one's mother tongue, the languages of other great races; when the child is at home in one *milieu*, should we not unlock for him the doors of other environments, that his life may grow in "ripe understanding" and "civil virtues" from abroad?

Such a conception of foreign language teaching has been admirably stated both here and abroad. In Great Britain it forms the main thesis of one of the best practical treatises on the teaching of modern foreign languages: H. G. Atkins and H. L. Hutton's "The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages."[1] I hope I may be pardoned for quoting their argument at some length:

> The most obvious value of a knowledge of modern languages is to be found in their practical employment, whether in speaking or writing, as a means of communication with natives of the countries where they are spoken. The importance of this aspect is beyond doubt and requires no argument; of itself, it renders a certain study of modern languages necessary and indeed unavoidable. Yet the total number of our students of foreign languages who will ever have such direct intercourse with foreigners will probably always remain *comparatively* small, and on these grounds alone a national position can not be claimed for their study. As far as this particular need is concerned, it could be met by the special training of those who are likely to have occasion to make such practical use of the languages concerned.
>
> The same argument applies to the knowledge required by specialists, who need to read the works of foreign experts in their subjects. In spite of the great and obvious importance of such a working knowledge of foreign languages, the number of those concerned is comparatively small, and would form no justification for making modern languages a general subject of study.
>
> The claim for a *national* position must be based not only, or even mainly, on such largely utilitarian grounds, but upon a broader, humanistic conception.

[1] Longmans, Green and Company, London and New York.

There are so many subjects which demand a place in the curriculum that we can not afford to barter away the time and energy of the twenty students for the benefit of the one. We must be convinced that all the one-and-twenty are deriving adequate benefit from their study, even though it may result in a special and peculiar advantage to the one.

We must jealously maintain this humanistic and not merely vocational value of modern languages; for their "face value," their practical usefulness to the few, is so obvious as sometimes to be regarded as the chief reason for their study.

Yet no other subject of humanistic education, as opposed to vocational training, bases its claims on the advantage of the one, but on its broad educative value for all. What then is the justification for teaching modern languages, or a modern language, to *all* pupils of our higher schools, and not merely to a select few?

There is no need to restate here the whole humanistic position for the benefit of modern languages in particular; but all the same it will be best to consider briefly some fundamental principles, in order to be able to state in its wider connection the position of our special study.

We may regard it as the aim of education to enable man to appreciate his position in the world, both spiritual and material, in which he lives; to enable him in the best and highest sense to adapt himself to the conditions of his existence.

The education of the child begins with his own immediate spiritual and material environment. Gradually his spiritual and material universe is widened, both directly through his growing acquaintance with the concrete world and indirectly through his new discoveries in the world of thought and ideas.

The more "educated" a man becomes, the wider grows his environment, till he finds it in various directions extending even beyond the bounds of the national horizon. He comes into contact with influences and modes of thought which reveal new aspects of life, namely those obtained from the standpoint of nations speaking languages other than his own. None, even the least educated, can entirely escape such contact, though these other nations and their languages may remain little more than empty names all through his life. Shall the man whose spiritual environment is being further widened by higher education be enabled to place himself at the standpoint of one or more of these other nations, be able to enjoy at first hand such a fresh aspect of life; or shall he continue to acquire only at second-hand, by reference and illusion, and perhaps through translation, as much as will almost inevitably be assimilated by him in the course of time?

In this question is involved the whole claim, the humanistic claim, of modern languages to the position of a staple subject in the curriculum of our schools. The growing child will make the acquaintance of other terms of speech, other modes of thought; in the literary works which will be read new ideas, fresh ideals and views of life will challenge his attention and stimulate his powers of comparison and criticism. He will not remain a mere spectator of this interesting drama, but under the influence of this wider experience will modify and extend the rules by which he lives.

It will be noted that Messrs. Atkins and Hutton emphasize the extension of the student's mental and spiritual horizon as a result of foreign language study and resultant reading in the foreign language. No forward-looking advocate of such study, certainly, would stress facility in conversational use of such a language—valuable though that is—at the expense of this acquaintance with new modes of thought. It was James Russell Lowell, one of the greatest of modern language teachers, who pricked the bubble of such facility when unaccompanied by familiarity with the enlarged horizon of ideas, when he wrote of a certain linguistic genius:

> His faculty of acquiring foreign tongues we do not value so highly as Mr. Ward. We have known many otherwise inferior men who possessed it. Indeed, the power to express the same nothing in ten different languages is something to be dreaded rather than admired. It gives a horrible advantage to dullness.[2]

"But," some one may say, "if ideas and modes of thought are more important than mere parrot-like facility in a foreign language or languages, why not get an acquaintance with these ideas and modes of thought through translations?" This argument is actually advanced by some writers on the subject. It betrays a woeful lack of acquaintance with foreign literatures on the one hand, and with available English

[2] "My Study Windows," pp. 191–2.

translations on the other. No one who is familiar with the content of the former and the amount and quality of the latter would ever make such a suggestion. More important still is the fact that translation, however finely done, can rarely give more than a pale shadow of the original—read Shakespeare in French translation for an illustration. This aspect of the matter has been recognized by one of our educational writers, Dr. H. A. Hollister, of the University of Illinois, in his "High School and Class Management,"[3] when he says:

> Attention has already been called to the fact that foreign language work is to be treated along with the discussion of the mother tongue as a part of a group of materials having for their use in education a more or less common purpose. It has been said that a man is twice a man who has mastered a second language. This is putting it too strongly. We prefer to think of man as gradually approaching, through processes of assimilation from all race sources, an ideal manhood, rich and full in human sympathy and comprehension. In this sense each language gained should represent a long step forward toward the attainment of such an ideal. Be this as it may, language, as the greatest of all human arts, must ever stand among the first of those attainments which are to be acquired through the training of the school. For not only is it the vehicle for the most of human thought and feeling, but it is that very thought and feeling itself put into concrete form, thus to pass as currency in all our everyday human interchange of these mental commodities.
>
> Now just what part is a foreign language to play in conducting this exchange? Simply this, that he who already has and can use intelligently the foreign coin need not go to the exchanger. For him the coin will not be subject to the deductions of the exchanger's usury.

It will be observed that Dr. Hollister not only adheres to the Atkins and Jenkins theory, already stated; he also questions by implication the value of the translation argument in his reference to the "exchanger's usury." If he could have added that the exchanger's product is very often a short-weight, alloyed or counterfeit medium, if not wholly dross, I should have found myself in complete agreement with him.

At the risk of quoting overmuch from this clear-visioned educator, I must repeat here one more paragraph from this book:[4]

> On the other hand, for those who master a modern tongue there is direct and intimate contact with growing, throbbing, intellectual life. Here live the arts, the constructive abilities, the politics, the religion, and the ethics of a contemporaneous national group. On this basis one may establish sympathy, new systems of principles, the technique of an art; and out of the study and use of the foreign tongue may gain also that better mastery, through comparison, of the structure of language—the technique of language art.

In this brief extract Dr. Hollister emphasizes again the conception of foreign language study as an extension of the study of our own, as an aid to the mastery of language-technique, and as an instrument (I should say the only instrument) for the sympathetic comprehension of human beings of other races and climes. I believe that he puts the case clearly and strongly. From this point of view, the study of modern foreign languages ought to be inextricably bound up with other subjects of the curriculum—for example, with English and history and geography in the schools; with English literature, with history, with economics, with art and architecture, with science, in the college. Indeed, if we may be permitted to digress from the broadly cultural standpoint, it is generally admitted that a knowledge of foreign languages is a *sine qua non* for advanced studies not only in literature, but in practically all the arts and sciences.

One can not blink the fact that the cultural conception of foreign language study is *ipso facto* in conflict with the purely vocational ideal advanced by some of our

[3] New York, 1915, pp. 242–3.

[4] *Ibid.*, p. 244.

American educators. On this point the British Ministry of Education has expressed itself so pointedly in opposition to them that I venture to quote:

> It has been well said that the purpose of education is not so much to prepare children for their occupations as to prepare them against their occupations. It must develop in them the powers and interest that will make them the masters and not the slaves of their work.[5]

President Coolidge also warned us of the dangers of over-emphasis of the vocational in an article in *Columbia* some years ago, in which he said:

> The present methods of industry, with all their dependence upon invention and their subordination to science, are narrowing rather than broadening in their effect upon employees. This in no way detracts from the dignity of work, but it has produced a kind of work which is very different in its effect upon the development of mankind. . . . This must be met by some counter tendency. There is but one, some kind of cultural activity.

Nor is this observation applicable only to the individual; it is just as valid for a nation, particularly a nation that devotes itself so whole-heartedly as ours to material progress of every sort.

In 1780 John Adams wrote to his wife:

> I must study politics and war, that my sons may have liberty to study mathematics and philosophy, geography, natural history, naval architecture, navigation and commerce, and agriculture, in order to give their children a right to study painting, poetry, music, architecture, statuary, tapestry, and porcelain.

One wonders whether our progress along the road he marked out would satisfy him, whether we have made advances in these lines in the last one hundred and fifty years at all commensurate with our increase in creature comforts. Whatever the answer may be, we must confess that material progress itself is forcing us to consider the necessity of developing a broader outlook. Unless we are willing to turn our backs completely on advances in transportation and communication, of which we have had striking demonstrations recently, we must face the fact that national boundaries are not so restricting as in the past, national party-walls not so formidable. The imagination, the curiosity, the interest of contemporary humanity have been awakened as never before to the importance of the study of civilizations and cultures that differ from one's own. People no longer pause before traditional obstacles as they once did; the world is relatively smaller and its divers peoples are relatively closer neighbors than ever before, whether they want to be or not. National barriers are slowly being levelled, and that educator is stubborn indeed who would attempt by the practice of some modern obscurantism either to deny the fact or to impede the process—for it is a logical corollary to the march of civilization itself.

If we are to meet the challenge of contemporary civilization, we must have—among other things—more teaching of modern foreign languages; and—this is just as vital—we must have more effective teaching of them. We must begin the study of foreign languages earlier and continue it longer. We must insist that the pupil obtain more than a smattering of one language before he turns to another. We must increase the time allotted to foreign languages; for, as President William Mather Lewis has pointed out, it is hardly fair to speak of "three years of French" when one means too often merely three school years of 36 weeks each, in a class meeting at most five times a week but more generally only three, and with periods of 35 to 40 minutes —minus the time devoted to discipline.

[5] Quoted by Professor I. L. Kandel, Teachers College, in SCHOOL AND SOCIETY, July 18, 1925, pp. 85–6.

school bookkeeping, and visitors! We must reduce the size of these classes, realizing that it is almost hopeless to attempt to teach a foreign language in classes of more than thirty pupils except under the most unusual circumstances. Last but not least, we must have better-prepared teachers. We must pay them better salaries if we expect them to study and travel abroad; we must give them leaves on part-pay if we expect them to make their subjects alive and interesting in the way that only those who have enjoyed foreign travel can do. We must protect the properly-trained American teacher of foreign languages against the somewhat widespread belief that any "native" can teach his own language to American boys and girls, and we must protect the efficient "native" teacher who *can* teach from the competition of his fellows who have merely drifted into such teaching —the all-too-common itinerant "foreign language professors" for whom school administrators—and some parents—have such a superstitious regard.

When Cervantes said "The understanding of foreign languages is the first rung on the ladder of all the sciences," he at least approximated the truth. Ability to read foreign languages is a practical tool of prime importance in the pursuit of advanced knowledge of many kinds. Ability to speak them is an important individual and national asset. But it is primarily on its value as a natural prolongation in time and space of the mother tongue that the study of modern foreign languages must justify itself, in my opinion, as a necessary factor in American education. Only thus can it fulfill its function as a purveyor of "ripe understanding and many civil virtues" from abroad.

HENRY GRATTAN DOYLE
GEORGE WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY,
WASHINGTON, D. C.

THE CORPORATION SCHOOL

I

VOCATIONAL education is an inescapable fact for every individual except those with the least endowment of mental and physical energy. The methods whereby individuals receive their vocational education is the concern of those who would direct training, the aim of which is to prepare for gainful occupations. The methods introduced and encouraged will reflect the philosophy of those who are in control of the systematic organization of the work. In order to attack the problem intelligently of stating the relationship of the corporation school to vocational education in general, one should review the progress that has been made in the past in this field. The development of an effective system of vocational education will be permanent and constructive in so far as it builds on the best that was contributed by past experience.

The evolution of the training of industrial workers has gone through four well-defined stages: (a) the family system, (b) the guild system, (c) the domestic system, and (d) the factory system.

In the first stage, each family was a self-contained unit. All food was raised by those who were to consume it. Furniture was made by the members of the family from timber cut from their own holdings. Live stock was raised for food. Hides were tanned and made into boots and shoes. Tallow was made into candles. Wool was carded, spun and woven by the women of the family. At this period vocational education was not represented by scientifically determined curricula. The boys helped their fathers and performed tasks that were equal to their strength and skill. In the same way the girls helped their mothers. This was essentially a period of "learning to do by doing." Also, the work was "pro-

ductive'' in the best sense of the word. All work done was for the benefit of the individual and the group. If a boy chopped a cord of wood it was to help keep him warm in the winter time as well as the other members of his family. The children were receiving their vocational education at the hands of immediate relatives who were vitally interested in the progress made. This period of training extended from later infancy until the age when the children founded homes for themselves and used the knowledge and skill they had acquired in managing their own affairs.

As cities were organized during the later Middle Ages, the skilled craftsmen began to specialize in the lines of work that interested them most and that promised the greatest return for their labors. The training of workers began to assume definite form and to be prescribed by definite rules. Products were for sale and exchange rather than for use only in the immediate family of the producer. The fame of experts in the arts and crafts drew novices to them who wished to learn their trades. For the purpose of maintaining standards of workmanship and also for mutual protection, the masters organized into guilds. Later the guilds were subdivided on the basis of crafts. For example, the Merchant Tailors' Guild was made up only of master tailors. Previously, the guilds had been made up of masters from all the crafts. With the influx of learners, the masters saw the necessity of regulating the number of persons who were to be initiated into the mysteries of their trades. It was a matter of self-protection to insure that the number of workers did not exceed the real demand for their work. It was only a step to the definition of rules regulating the training of apprentices.

Under the guild system the apprentice lived under the roof of the master. The number of apprentices that might be in training at a given period was specified. Usually the apprentice agreed to serve for seven years without pay. The master was to have his services, and, in turn, was to feed, clothe and train the boy in his work. The degree of proficiency he was to attain before he became a full-fledged journeyman often was specified.

The training of the apprentice was more highly specialized under the guild than under the family system. He learned a craft and later exchanged the products of his skill for the products of other workers. No longer did each workman make everything that he needed for himself and his family. The first beginnings of specialization had started.

The group of workers in which the apprentice found himself was small. The master was a real master of his craft. The number of workers under him was small enough to be supervised rigidly. The apprentices and journeymen lived in the house of the master and absorbed not only his craft skill, but the manners and customs of his house. It was not unusual for a journeyman to marry his master's daughter. No great social gulf existed between the two. The system for the transmission of the social inheritance of the craftsmen was well worked out. As in the family system, the apprentice learned much through imitation of skilled workers. His work was productive, supervised, and he was held to definite standards of accomplishment. The master who failed in this contract with his men was held to account by his guild.

By the middle to the eighteenth century the strength of the guilds weakened, and the workers tended to migrate from the cities to the rural sections. The need for protection offered by town life was no longer necessary, and the country was the source of supply for raw materials for the craftsmen working in textiles, wood and leather. The entrepreneur made his appearance, and the transition from the guild

to the factory system began. In this era, which has been called the domestic period of manufacturing, the entrepreneur acted as middle man, buying the raw material from the producers or from the annual fairs and transporting it to the homes of the skilled workers. These workers, together with their families, carried out the orders of the entrepreneur. For example, one family might specialize in the carding of wool. This would be their only job. When it was finished, it might be taken by the entrepreneur to another family that specialized in the spinning of yarn. Still another family might receive the same material and weave it into cloth, and another might make the cloth up into garments. This system permitted the introduction of entrepreneurs at each step. It had the additional effect of removing the ultimate consumer as far as possible from the source of supply. At each step, where products changed hands, a small margin of profit was added. We are interested in the effect of this system of training on young workers.

Under the domestic system, when it was fairly well organized, the children in the homes of the workers were trained in just one or two processes of manufacture. This partial training might be thorough in itself, but it did not produce the all-around workman that the family or guild systems had produced. Also, the definite standards to be attained by learners were no longer in force. Because of economic pressure, there was a tendency to sacrifice quality for increased output. Too, there was the tendency for the processes to be simplified, and as a result the complexity of the skills that the learners built up was less than under the former systems. This system introduced an element of competition that was much more intense than had been known before. Families competed with families for work, and the entrepreneur took full advantage of the situation which they had created to lower prices that they paid to workers.

It was but a step from the domestic system of manufacture to the factory system as we know it to-day. The entrepreneur saw the advantage of centralizing processes and workers. Instead of carrying materials around to separate homes to be fabricated he erected or rented a large building where all the processes could be carried on under one roof. In this place he assembled the different workers. They were paid wages for their work and the emphasis in many cases was shifted from slow, painstaking work that satisfied the creative impulses of skilled craftsmen to speedy, quantity production. It was found profitable to subdivide the processes further and further.

The introduction of the factory system, with the consequent removal of the working processes from the home, and the emphasis on speed and quantity production—the subdivision of the processes and the low wages for work—all these had a marked effect upon the education of the workers. No longer did he raise the raw materials, make them into finished goods and use the products in his own family. Neither was he responsible for the purchase and complete fabrication of materials as in the guild system. Even the opportunity to direct at least part of the processes was taken from him which he had enjoyed during the domestic period. In the factory system the worker is employed for a set number of hours, to perform a certain specified process, in a predetermined way, for an agreed upon wage. In the majority of factories no provision is made for the systematic instruction of learners. Children are introduced into departments and their work is general, unrelated and not designed to produce thorough mechanics or even masters of partial processes. If a trade is acquired it is "picked-up." No one is definitely responsible for training

and no standards of performance are at hand. This is the situation in the majority of industrial plants to-day.

> The master has become so busy trying to maintain himself against the competition of others, and to keep up with the technical advancement of his trade, that time has failed him for the instruction of his apprentices, while, on the other hand, the latter has found that the trade has developed to such an extent that he can no longer learn its fundamentals by mere activity in his master's shop.[1]

Another factor that is very real and that often is neglected is the greed of parents, who are more interested in the few dollars that a boy or girl can earn in the period between school and marriage than in their real vocational education. Recently, an Italian boy of eighteen was hired by a telegraph company to sort and carry messages to operators in the Morse department. The boy worked for two days and then came to the employment bureau, saying that he wanted to resign. He liked the work and the people with whom he came into contact. Questioning brought out the fact that his father was a candymaker and that he had found a job for the boy in a candy factory where he would be paid two dollars a week more than in his present work. It was pointed out to the boy that he could enroll for free instruction in the telegraph school and in time qualify as an operator. Candy-making is a seasonal occupation, while telegraphy is relatively permanent. The boy was shown that by the time he is twenty, if he remained with the telegraph company and attended the school for six hours a week, he could have an assured job with a company that has national opportunities for work, travel and advancement. In addition, there would be sick and pension provisions that small candy manufacturers could not offer their workers. The boy had seen enough of the work of the operators, and he appreciated the opportunity that was being offered to him to want to take advantage of it. He tore up his resignation and returned to work. The next day he failed to report for duty. Investigation disclosed that he was employed in the candy factory. He came to the employment bureau to get the cashier's slip for money due him and told the employment director that he had been forced by his father to take the higher paying position, even though it did not offer the best future possibilities. He was sacrificing his future in being loyal to his parents. Incidentally, the boy added, as he was leaving the office, the candy factory was closing for two weeks after the Christmas rush. Vocational educators must take the greed of parents into consideration in mapping out any program for the training of boys and girls.

[1] Dooley, William H., "Principles and Methods of Industrial Education." (For use in Teacher Training Classes.) Pp. 24–25. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1919.

II

The typical business man has very little faith in the ability of the traditional schoolman to train his workers for him. This probably is due to the fact that those in industry acquired their vocational skills "on the job" after they were done with formal training. Many have found, however, that it is more efficient and profitable to train new workers in a systematic way than to rely upon their "picking-up" information and skills. Consequently, there has been an increasing interest in the creation of corporation schools whose sole function is to train workers for specialized tasks. Here the business man hires the teachers for his school, decides as to the qualifications of the students, determines the course of study and frequently pays the students while they are being trained. In some cases this has been done without consulting educational experts. In others, business executives have been guided by the job analysts, the curriculum makers and the educational psychologists. As a result,

some of the corporation schools have become model laboratories where efficient methods of trade training are being evolved.

The list of corporations which maintain company schools is an impressive one. It is impossible, however, to present a complete list. The following were culled from various reports issued in numbers of the *National Corporation Training School Bulletin:*

(1) General Electric Company.
(2) Westinghouse Electric and Manufacturing Company.
(3) Swift & Company.
(4) American Telephone and Telegraph Company.
(5) Equitable Life Assurance Society of the U. S.
(6) Ford Automobile Company.
(7) Packard Automobile Company.
(8) Goodyear Tire and Rubber Company.
(9) International Harvester Company.
(10) Elliott-Fisher Company.
(11) National Cash Register Company.
(12) Western Union Telegraph Company.
(13) American Rolling Mill Company.
(14) Winchester Repeating Arms Company.
(15) E. I. du Pont de Nemours and Company.

In practically every one of these cases the company schools are giving their employees a type of training that the organized schools in their particular localities are not equipped, and probably should not be expected, to give. Successful training courses are built after the jobs in the company have been analyzed. The educational department of the corporation maps out courses to fit particular requirements. Also, the beginners are trained in a working atmosphere rather than in a school atmosphere. Many corporations train their workers on company time. In this way they can insist upon application and progress, or the name of the student who fails is dropped from the *pay*roll.

The public vocational school is of necessity compelled to attempt to train as many workers as possible for as many types of occupations as are represented in the community. The shoemakers have as much right to demand that shoemaking be taught in the public vocational schools as the business men have to insist that typewriting should be offered. The corporation school does not have to face such a restriction. Its sole purpose is to train workers for specific work. Their methods are measured against a criterion that is strict. "Will it pay?" is the question asked before a specific course is offered, or before changes are made. The school can not use this absolute standard. As much as we like to think otherwise, it is compelled to consider its sources of revenue and to steer its course so as to please as many of its patrons as possible.

The mission of the public school systems and that of the corporation schools is separate. For at least a generation the corporation school will be the dominant factor in the training of workers. During that time jobs to be filled will be analyzed so that a great body of knowledge will be accumulated for the use of those who specialize in vocational guidance and in the construction of vocational curricula. At present the average schoolman has only the haziest notions of what is going on in the place which he designates as "out in the world." The educational departments and the personnel divisions of the great corporations are busy analyzing the jobs in their organizations. In a few places, such as the Equitable Life Assurance Society of the United States and the Philadelphia Company in Pittsburgh, such data are being used as the basis for real vocational curricula. In this way the real technique of vocational education will be worked out. At present some few organizations such as the National City Bank of New York City have seen that they can not hope to give their people all the related subject-matter they need. Accordingly, they have made specific arrangements with such institutions as New York University to handle this phase of instruction. In the hands of an

educational administrator who knows the training possibilities of the work itself and the skills and information that should supplement the knowledge gained on the job, the corporation training school assumes the aspect of a real vocational university.

The aims of the publicly supported elementary and high schools and the privately run corporation schools are not antagonistic. The public schools have three functions. These are (a) to supply the general information and training represented in the traditional elementary and high-school subjects; (b) to give practical and industrial arts instruction so that careers may be selected with some degree of intelligence, and (c) to provide instruction in related subject-matter to supplement vocational courses given in corporation schools. This last function may properly be taken care of in continuation, part-time and evening classes. For example, we will suppose that a boy of seventeen wishes to become a telegrapher. He is a graduate of the elementary and junior high school. He has been given instruction in the traditional subjects. In the pre-vocational work in the junior high school he has decided that telegraphy is the vocation for which he is best suited. His training in the sending and receiving of messages in code should be given in a telegraph school operated by a telegraph company for its employees. The related subject-matter that he needs, such as spelling, English, the history of communication, etc., may properly be given in publicly supported schools operated in connection with the regular school system evening or continuation classes.

In the most successful corporation schools in operation at the present time students are paid for the time spent in acquiring information that will be vocationally useful. When complete vocational information has been assembled, when definite training programs have been built on a foundation of job analysis and when teachers of vocational subjects have been trained in sufficient numbers, it will be time enough to turn over vocational education to the publicly supported schools. In the meantime, if the work of the publicly supported and the corporation schools is coordinated the result should be cultured, vocationally competent individuals. That, surely, is the desire of both schoolman and employer.

RICHARD S. UHRBROCK
DIRECTOR OF PERSONNEL,
UNIVERSITY OF WYOMING

EDUCATIONAL EVENTS

AN ENGLISH VILLAGE COLLEGE

THE Education Committee of the Cambridgeshire County Council has unanimously approved a scheme for recommendation to the county council, which has been drafted by Mr. Henry Morris, the education secretary, for a village college at Sawston, a place with some 1,500 inhabitants, which lies seven miles southeast from Cambridge. The village college is intended to be a center not only of juvenile and adult education, but of those many social activities which should go to make up a healthy and progressive rural community. It will serve the needs not only of Sawston, but of an area round it of several square miles, containing other villages.

A correspondent of the London *Times* writes:

> The ordinary village school is often too small for the effective teaching of the older children. Thus, the first step to improve matters in the county was to grade the schools in a district chosen for experiment, closing some schools and sending children from ten years old and upwards from several villages to one central school. This was found to produce a marked improvement in the standard of teachers obtained and in other signs of efficiency, and a saving in salaries and costs of upkeep. Next, if development is to follow, it is necessary to provide rooms where adolescents and adults can continue their education, whether general or agricultural, and be initiated into social activities, without returning to the atmosphere and surroundings of the elementary school, which now, too often, is the only building available.
>
> A county council is the statutory authority, not only for elementary education, but also for higher

education, agricultural and other, for social and physical training, for the administration of the acts for public libraries, for juvenile employment and insurance, public health and agriculture. The village is too small a unit for the effective organization of these activities. Mr. Morris saw that they must be based on a larger area, and might be grouped, together with voluntary bodies working for the welfare of the rural community—bodies which also suffer from lack of accommodation—in one spacious and dignified group of buildings. Thus arose the scheme of village colleges placed at a few convenient and central points in the area of an administrative county. But it is easier to formulate a scheme—even a statesmanlike scheme such as this—than to bring it to pass. To build as an experiment one village college was estimated to cost about £14,000. Where, in these lean years, was so much money to be found? The Education Committee chose the first site and set to work. At Sawston, a new senior elementary school serving several villages is needed, for which the county council can vote funds and secure a grant from the board of education. The cost will be about £6,000, but the committee showed that, owing to economies produced by grouping over a wide area, the annual charge on the rates will be little more than if the existing schools were repaired and improved to serve a small area. If the county council will provide this school, the following gifts and grants have been promised: Messrs. Spicer, Limited, the owners of the paper works at Sawston, will give two acres of land as a site adjoining their large recreation ground; Mr. H. G. Spicer will give £500 to provide a room for medical services, and Mrs. H. G. Spicer £500 for a domestic science center. The Carnegie Trustees will grant a sum of £5,500 towards a hall, a library, rooms for adult and agricultural education and a warden's house. The village of Sawston is required to contribute £500 towards the cost of the Village Hall, and this sum has been guaranteed by Commander R. F. Eyre, R.N., of Sawston Hall, pending its being raised by the village. The Syndics of the Cambridge University Press have promised a gift of books for the library. Thus the vote of the Education Committee, if adopted by the county council, will secure the whole of the money needed and start this most interesting experiment.

The board of education have given a general approval to the scheme, and, in making their generous contribution to the cost, the Carnegie Trustees state that they think the experiment is one of "national importance as a considered attempt to provide a characteristic central village with a communal center . . . a home for the cultural, social and recreational needs of . . . the village and the surrounding district."

THE SCHOOLS OF ROUMANIA

THE enfranchisement of the Roumanian peasants at the close of the war and the distribution of the large estates among them has had, according to the report of a special correspondent to *The Christian Science Monitor*, a remarkable influence on Roumanian education. Having become land owners and full-fledged citizens, in a vastly enlarged kingdom, the villagers have begun to feel that they need more enlightenment in order to cope with the new situation and rightly to discharge their increased responsibilities.

As a result, schools of every sort have sprung up all over the land, and the number of pupils and students has rapidly multiplied. Within the last four years not less than 5,000 new primary school buildings have been put up in Roumania. These new buildings have been constructed not primarily by the central authorities, nor with money from the state treasury, but to a large extent by the people themselves, the villagers contributing labor, material and money.

This rapid construction of new schools is not by any means confined to "old Roumania," but is also taking place in the provinces annexed after the war. In Bessarabia, the large province formerly belonging to Russia but inhabited largely by Roumanians, and annexed by Roumania after the war, 2,000 new primary schools have been opened with an average attendance of over 150 pupils each. In another new province, Bukovina, formerly under the Austrians, the number of schools has increased from 179 to about 500.

The largest province acquired by Roumania was that of Transylvania, which formerly was part of Hungary. It contained a large number of Roumanian inhabitants, among whom the two branches of the Roumanian Church—the Roumanian Orthodox and the Greek Oriental—maintained 2,655 Roumanian schools. This number within the last few years has been increased to 6,000, all of which are now supported by the state. In the old kingdom, which includes the Province of Wallachia and Moldavia, the

number of primary schools has been increased from 5,200 to 9,000.

The number of state secondary schools also has increased from 22 before the war to 180 at present, besides 150 private secondary schools. Naturally, also, there has been a very rapid increase in the number of normal schools, which have mounted from 19 to 102. More than 150 new professional or vocational schools have also been opened. The "Caisse des Ecoles," which is a state organization created to edit and publish text-books, has printed 2,800,000 books within the last four years, as against 1,595,000 copies from 1900–1922.

Within the last four years, also, 168,000,000 Roumanian lei have been expended for new university buildings. The sum for university scholarships has been increased from 1,000,000 to 6,000,000 lei annually, and for boarding schools from 6,000,000 to 38,000,000, while the number of students has risen from 5,000 to over 22,000.

THE INTERCHANGE OF STUDENTS BETWEEN NORTH AND SOUTH AMERICA

RECIPROCAL interchange of students between North and South America is about to be initiated by Princeton University. According to advices to the Commerce Department from Assistant Trade Commissioner Mason F. Ford, Buenos Aires, a party of Princeton students will soon arrive in Argentina for a three months' study tour. It is understood that the way will be paved for a return visit of Argentine students to the United States.

Heretofore, encouragement has been given to Latin-Americans studying in the United States and some talk of North American students reversing the process. In practice it has been generally a one-way movement. Granting that attractions for a four-year course of study in some of the countries of Latin America are insufficient to bring many students from the United States, it would prove beneficial to foster study tours of several months duration.

Provided students of fairly serious intentions are induced to join pilgrimages of this nature, in the course of a few years a more sympathetic attitude toward the peoples of Latin America and their problems should result. Pan-Americanism and trade should benefit to a large degree if this movement can be increased and extended to cover all of the American Republics.

The British Ambassador to Argentina has attempted to create interest in a movement of this sort among students of universities in the British Isles. His contention is that many men are now being trained in home universities who are destined ultimately to pilot British interests in Argentina, therefore an opportunity allowing these young men, at the most receptive stage of their lives, to see the varied activities, both intellectual and material, which this important New World center possesses will prove a sound investment in the future.

EDUCATIONAL TOURS UNDER THE INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE OF TEACHERS COLLEGE

TWENTY-FIVE of Germany's outstanding educators will come to the United States next summer to study American institutions of learning, according to an announcement made by Professor Paul Monroe, director of the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University. The German group will be under the leadership of Dr. Franz Hilker, of the Zentralinstitut, Berlin. The program for the German visitors has been arranged by Dr. Milton C. Del Manzo, of the International Institute of Teachers College. After its arrival in New York, the group will devote a brief period to lectures at Columbia University dealing with American education.

The delegation will arrive in New York about March 20 and will remain until the end of June. Its members are keenly interested in American educational methods and will visit all types of American schools, rural, city, teachers' training institutions, colleges, universities and state departments of education. A similar visit from Mexican educators two years ago is said to have initiated important reforms in the secondary educational system of Mexico.

The delegates will visit the east, middle west and south, traveling in all about 4,000 miles. It is probable that this educational tour will become an annual feature because of the widespread interest in American education. There were over 500 applications for membership in this group, from which twenty-five were selected.

On the conclusion of the tour, the party will return to New York for a series of lectures and discussions which will summarize the work that has been done. It is also planned to arrange a series of conferences and dinners in order that leading American educators can meet the visiting educators.

Dr. Monroe stated that during 1929 a group of outstanding American educators will be conducted on a school inspection tour of Germany. The Americans will go abroad at the invitation of the Zentralinstitut für Erziehung und Unterricht (Central Institute for Education and Instruction), of Berlin, and the Prussian Ministry of Education.

The Teachers College at Mainz, Germany, has invited the International Institute of Teachers College to organize an "American Education Week," to be held at Mainz in the summer of 1928, to which all the German teachers and educators will be invited. English educators will also participate in this Education Week, which is the first conference of the kind which has ever been held in any foreign country. It is being organized by Professor Milton C. Del Manzo and Professor Thomas Alexander, of the International Institute.

The week will be devoted to a discussion of the philosophy, organization and practice of American public and private education. Several prominent American educators will participate, each lecturing on his special field. It is also planned to organize an exhibit of American schools of a somewhat comprehensive nature so that the participants in the conference will get not merely a theoretical discussion, but a somewhat objective one. Booklets will be prepared setting forth the chief characteristics of the American schools system.

The International Institute of Teachers College registered this fall more than 300 students from various countries. Among the most notable additions to this year's student body were several appointees under the Macy-Grant scholarships. Of these ten are direct nominees of the Ministries of Education in the countries from which they come and seventeen are nominated by responsible educational authorities. Five already have doctor's degrees from European universities. The institute was established in 1923 to care for the needs of students at Teachers College from other lands and to bring them into direct contact with American institutions.

AMERICAN SCHOOL SAVINGS BANKING

NEARLY four million pupils in the schools of the United States are participating in school savings banking and deposited almost twenty-four million dollars during the year ended June 30, 1927, according to a statement issued by W. Espey Albig, deputy manager of the American Bankers' Association, in charge of its various savings activities.

Mr. Albig's report says that seven years ago, the Savings Bank Division of the American Bankers Association reported 2,736 schools having school savings. As of June 30, 1927, the number is 12,678. The number of pupils enrolled in schools having a school savings system has in that time increased from 1,015,653 to 4,658,156. The number of pupils participating in school savings has increased from 462,651 to 3,815,785.

These figures indicate that while enrolment in schools involved in the school savings banking movement has increased by 358 per cent. in the period covered, the numbers participating in this type of savings have grown by 724 per cent. Mr. Albig continues:

> The deposits, which seven years ago amounted to $2,800,000, are contrasted with deposits during the past year of about $23,700,000. The net savings as of June 30, 1927, were $9,464,178.93 and the bank balances $39,137,073.91.
>
> In comparison with last year, the number of schools increased 11.4 per cent.; the number of pupils enrolled in schools having a school savings system, 7.8 per cent.; the number participating, 12.1 per cent.; the deposits, 15.7 per cent., and the net savings, 7.9 per cent.
>
> Progress of school savings is generally forward where once it has gained a considerable foothold. It develops most rapidly in towns and cities because in urban centers most persons receive their pay at stated periods and children enter savings with greater assurance of continued participation. In a number of states, California, Connecticut, Illinois, Indiana, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Washington and Wisconsin, school savings have assumed really large proportions. In seven gross deposits for the year passed the million mark.

In New York it is in excess of three and one half million dollars, and in Pennsylvania in excess of four million.

School savings in its inception attracted little attention from educators. As it has assumed a larger place in the educational field, more and more educators are coming to appreciate its value in terms of social conduct of the children during school years and later in life.

THE NORMAL SCHOOLS OF NEW YORK STATE

In the current bulletin of the State Education Department, Dr. Ned H. Dearborn, director of the teacher-training division of the New York State Department of Education, gives the following figures for the state normal schools:

	1926	1927
Brockport	227	248
Buffalo	1,141	1,179
Cortland	860	884
Fredonia	466	599
Geneseo	501	580
New Paltz	630	740
Oneonta	580	677
Oswego	419	525
Plattsburg	365	414
Potsdam	625	717
Total	5,864	6,563

In addition, the State Teachers' College at Albany has an enrolment of 1,182. The three training schools maintained by the City of New York have an enrolment of 6,576; the Rochester Training School 240 and that in Syracuse with 267.

There are still other teachers being trained at public expense. These are enrolled in the "teachers' training classes," whose graduates are limited to service in the rural sections. These classes have an enrolment of 1,439.

Dr. Dearborn writes:

> Does the growth of enrolment in our teacher-training institutions indicate that the time is at hand when more rigid admission requirements can be formulated and put into operation?
>
> The answer clearly seems to be in the affirmative. In fact, plans have been developed and steps are being taken to find reliable methods of selection of prospective teachers for our state normal schools.
>
> A second question is related to state standards for elementary school teachers. Do not present conditions seem to justify an improvement in the standards for elementary school teachers and particularly for those in rural districts? The data throw some light upon the answer to this question, but there are other factors which must also be considered. A careful study of all conditions related to this problem is being made at the present time, and plans will be formulated in light of the findings.
>
> It seems appropriate to state at this point, however, that New York State is in a more favorable position for the advancement of teachers' standards than it has been for many years. What is needed now is a careful examination of the facts regarding the qualification of teachers and related factors and then a vigorous and determined effort to place New York State in a position of national leadership in the matter of teachers' standards and of teacher-training facilities.

THE NEED FOR ANNUITIES AT THE UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

Minnesota's desire to establish an insurance plan for faculty members was vigorously defended at the annual "Dad's Day" dinner following the Wisconsin-Minnesota football game, in an address by President Coffman, read, in the absence of the president, by the Hon. Fred B. Snyder, president of the Board of Regents. Dr. Coffman said:

> Every effort was made this year to retain our ablest men, but in spite of all our efforts twelve professors resigned. This is a loss which the institution can not well sustain.
>
> Some of those who left gave as one of their reasons for going the fact that the university has no plan to provide for them or their families in their old age. Some of those whom we sought to take their places refused to come here for the same reason.
>
> More than 140 educational institutions of this country have a pension, an annuity, or an insurance plan. The regents of this university have been studying the situation for seven years and have come to the conclusion that some such plan is necessary.
>
> Men who are qualifying themselves for professorial positions are required to spend years in training before they receive their appointments as professors. As a matter of fact most of the young men do not attain this rank until they are somewhere between 35 and 40 years of age. All they

have earned, and in many cases all they could borrow, has been spent in graduate study with a view to fitting them for distinguished service as professors in a university.

Practically all of the institutions of higher learning of any distinction in this country have made provision in some form for an insurance or annuity, or pension plan for their staffs. If Minnesota is to attract and retain men of the kind she wants on her staff, she must meet this kind of competition. She must do what Illinois, Michigan, California, Colorado, Chicago, Yale, Princeton, Carleton College and more than 100 other education institutions already have done.

This university was established and is maintained for the benefit of the state. Its chief purpose, of course, is that of providing competent instruction for the students who come here. These students are entitled to the best. An institution which is satisfied with mediocrity or a state that is satisfied to have its university characterized by mediocrity fails to exhibit an appreciation of those fundamental purposes which justify its existence. Minnesota must do all it can to build up and retain a faculty equivalent to the splendid opportunities and needs of the state of Minnesota.

THE MEDICAL SCHOOL OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

DEDICATION of the Clinics of the new Medical School of the University of Chicago took place on October 31 and November 1. The Clinics, built and equipped at a cost of more than $7,000,000, and backed by nearly $25,000,000 in endowment, will make Chicago one of the world's centers of medical research. The Albert Merritt Billings Hospital and the Max Epstein Clinic of the new group were opened to patients on October 1.

Attending the dedication services were more than sixty delegates, representing twenty-five states, and Canada, Holland and Norway. Ten of the delegates were presidents of universities, and twelve were deans of medical schools. Many of the leading members of the medical profession of the country also attended and took part in the clinics.

The program was opened with the One Hundred Forty-eighth Convocation, at which James Rowland Angell, president of Yale University, gave the convocation address, "Medicine and the University."

Following a luncheon at the Albert Merritt Billings Hospital, there were departmental assemblies in the new buildings, at which results of research work were presented. W. Mansfield Clark, of the Johns Hopkins Medical School; Robert Gesell, of the University of Michigan; Arthur S. Loevenhart, of the University of Wisconsin, and Karl Landsteiner, of the Rockefeller Institute for Medical Research, presented papers.

Presentation of the Frank Billings Medical Clinic and its endowment fund was made by Bernard E. Sunny, chairman of the Citizens' Committee, in the assembly room of the University Clinics at 2:00 o'clock. President Max Mason made the response for the university. Alfred E. Cohn and Donald D. Van Slyke, both members of the Rockefeller Institute for Medical Research, gave addresses.

Clinical demonstrations by Arthur Dean Bevan, professor of surgery at Rush Medical College of the University of Chicago, were given in the department of surgery at the same hour. At a scientific assembly in Leon Mandel Hall at 8:30 in the evening, I. Snapper, of the University of Amsterdam, and Francis Carter Wood, director of the Institute of Cancer Research of Columbia University, presented papers.

Tuesday's program included the presentation of the Albert Merritt Billings Hospital to the university, Dr. Frank Billings acting for the Billings family. Presentation of the Max Epstein Clinic was made by Mr. Epstein, and President Mason accepted for the university. Rufus Cole, director of the Hospital of the Rockefeller Institute for Medical Research, gave an address on "The Hospital and the Laboratory."

In a clinical assembly in the afternoon, William S. Thayer, professor emeritus of the Johns Hopkins Medical School, and Evarts Ambrose Graham, professor of surgery, Washington University School of Medicine, gave lectures.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND NEWS

AT the inaugural ceremonies connected with the induction of Dr. Arthur Stanley Pease, as president of Amherst College, on November 4, the speakers were Dr. A. Lawrence Lowell, president of Harvard University, who spoke for Harvard, President Pease's alma mater; Pro-

fessor Clifford H. Moore, dean of the Faculty of Arts and Sciences of Harvard, who spoke for the classics, and Dr. Frank J. Goodnow, president of the Johns Hopkins University, who spoke for the Amherst alumni. The Honorable Edward T. Esty, '97, presided at the luncheon. Dr. Pease's inaugural address was on the aims of education.

DR. JAMES EPHRAIM COONS, pastor of the Methodist Church in Newton Center, Massachusetts, and lecturer in the school of theology of Boston University, succeeds Dr. U. S. Smith as president of Iowa Wesleyan College.

DR. ROBERT M. SLAGLE has resigned as president of the University of South Dakota, effective on September 1, 1929. In his letter of resignation Dr. Slagle said that on September 1, 1929, he will have completed thirty-four years of service with state educational institutions and that at that time he will be sixty-four years old.

PROFESSOR JOHN DEWEY will give the anniversary discourse of the New York Academy of Medicine on November 17. He will speak on "Mind and Body."

A TESTIMONIAL dinner was given recently to Professor Morris R. Cohen, professor of philosophy in the College of the City of New York, by students and friends at the Hotel Astor, New York, on the occasion of the twenty-fifth anniversary of his activities as a teacher. Professor Felix Frankfurter was toastmaster, and the speakers were Professor Nathan R. Margold, Dean Frederick J. E. Woodbridge, Professor John Dewey, Dr. Judas Magnus, Judge Julian Mack, The Honorable Bertrand Russell, The Honorable Emory Buckner, President Frederick B. Robinson and Professor Harry A. Overstreet. Letters were read from Dr. Felix Adler, Dr. John H. Finley, Dr. Alfred E. Cohn, Dean Roscoe Pound, Mr. Walter Lippmann, Professor Albert Einstein and Justice O. W. Holmes.

ON the occasion of the completion of twenty years' service by Albert Leonard as superintendent of the schools of New Rochelle, N. Y., a tribute was paid to him by Mayor B. B. Badear, who said: "As chief executive of the city of New Rochelle, I desire at this time to extend my congratulations to Dr. Leonard, to assure him that he has the full gratitude and confidence of the people of this city and to express the wish that the future may add many years of the pleasant relationship that has existed between him and our people."

AT the annual convocation of the University of Paris, the doctorate of laws was conferred on Professor James Brown Scott, of Columbia University, for his contributions to international law.

CHARLES P. HOWLAND, a lawyer of New York City, member of the General Education Board and a trustee of the Johns Hopkins University, has been appointed research associate in government at Yale University with the rank of professor.

DR. ROBERT G. CLELAND, Norman Bridge professor of Hispanic-American history at Occidental College and dean of men, has been promoted to be vice-president of the college. In the absence of the president he is acting president for this semester.

CLAIR E. TURNER, associate professor in the department of biology and public health at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, has accepted appointment to the chairmanship of the health section of the World Federation of Education Associations. A school health program recently submitted to the League of Nations by the federation was accepted with high commendation.

DR. SAMUEL B. HECKMAN has been elected president of the New York Academy of Public Education.

MISS FRANCES JENKINS, of the University of Cincinnati, was elected president of the Southwestern Ohio Teachers' Association at the annual election of officers, held at Hughes High School and the University of Cincinnati, on October 29.

THE Northwestern Convention of the State Teachers' Association of Philadelphia has elected as president Miss Beatrice Farrell, teacher of English in the Roosevelt Junior High School at Erie; the president of the Central Convention is A. P. Akeley, superintendent of Potter County, Coudersport.

DR. CECIL A. MOORE, professor of English in the University of Minnesota, has been appointed chairman of the English department.

DR. JAMES MOFFATT, of Glasgow, Scotland, a scholar in the field of church history, has been appointed to the chair in Union Theological ,Seminary, New York City, held for many years by Dr. McGiffert, whose ill health necessitated his retirement a year ago.

DR. GEORGE WILLIAM SMALL, of Merton College, England, has taken up his work as a professor of English at the University of Washington.

PROFESSOR J. H. MOUNTFORD, professor of the classics in Cornell University, has resigned to become professor of Latin and the head of the department at the College of Wales, at Aberystwith, Wales.

NORMAN MCLEAN, fellow and formerly lecturer in Hebrew at Christ's College, Cambridge, has been elected master of the college in succession to the late Sir Arthur Shipley.

ARTHUR ANDERSON, a business man of Chicago, has been elected to fill the vacancy on the board of trustees of Northwestern University caused by the death of Elbert H. Gary.

DR. THOMAS BARBOUR, who has been connected with Harvard University Museum for many years, has been appointed director to succeed Dr. Samuel Henshaw, who recently resigned after serving for twenty-three years.

DR. WILLIAM B. OWEN has returned to active duty as president of the Chicago Normal College, after a leave of absence because of ill-health.

AT Cornell University, Professor R. H. Jordan, director of the summer session, has been granted a sabbatical leave of absence for the second term of the year 1928–29, and Professor C. H. Hull, of the department of American history, for the entire year 1928–29. Dr. Hull is eighty-six years old.

DR. REMSEN DU BOIS BIRD, the president of Occidental College, is on leave of absence for the first semester 1927–28, and is touring in Europe studying educational methods and university architecture.

DEAN L. JOHN NUTTALL, Jr., of the college of education of the Brigham Young University, has been granted sabbatical leave for study at Columbia University.

DR. ROBERT W. HOLLAND, the principal of the Isaac Pitman Schools of England, is visiting some of the leading institutions of learning in this country.

CASS ARTHUR REED, president of the International College of Smyrna, and Floyd H. Black, president of the Sofia American Schools, have arrived in the United States. They plan a speaking tour in the interest of the endowment for the American University of Beirut, Constantinople Woman's College, Robert College, International College of Smyrna, Sofia American Schools and Athens College. Mr. Bayard Dodge, president of the American University of Beirut, and Miss Kathryn Newell Adams, president of the Constantinople Woman's College, already are speaking for the fund. They will be joined later by Dr. Caleb Frank Gates, president of Robert College, who was expected on November 11, and by Mrs. Elizabeth Dodge Huntington, a sister of Dr. Dodge, who will arrive on November 19 to aid the campaign.

UNDER the joint auspices of the Germanic Museum and the Fogg Art Museum, Professor Adolph Goldschmidt, of the University of Berlin, authority on medieval art, visiting lecturer on fine arts and the history of German culture at Harvard University, will give six public lectures in German, illustrated by the stereopticon, on German architecture. These lectures will be given in the lecture room of the Germanic Museum on six successive Wednesday afternoons at four o'clock. They began on November 9.

DEAN ALFRED N. FRENCH, of the College of Liberal Arts of the University of New Hampshire, was the speaker at the second annual meeting of the department of education and vocation of the University Club of Boston, on November 16.

PROFESSOR HENRY W. HOLMES, dean of the Harvard Graduate School of Education, made an address at the reception to the students at the opening of the academic year on "The Training of Teachers and the Making of the Nation."

DR. EDGAR S. BRIGHTMAN, Borden Parker Bowne professor of philosophy in Boston University Graduate School, is giving the fourth annual series of John M. Flowers memorial lectures at Duke University, Durham, N. C., on November 7, 8 and 9.

THE memorial to Dr. Andrew Dickson White, first president of Cornell University, which was recently placed on the walls of Sage Chapel, is of French marble, carved and adorned with small shields and figures as a miniature cathedral and reads: "In memory of Andrew Dickson White, the ideal citizen. He served his state, his country and mankind, with single-minded devotion, as senator, as ambassador, as police commissioner, in Russia, in Germany, at The Hague. But above all honors by him obtained, he valued most his part in the foundation of Cornell University. In that institution as fostering mother of citizenship, he realized the dreams of his earliest manhood, and among the last wishes, by him expressed, was that he should be remembered as the originator of her educational policies, her broad intellectual outlook, her nonsectarian spirit, and her even-handed justice to men and women alike."

A BOOKPLATE has been designed showing a medallion portrait of Dr. Charles William Eliot to mark the volumes purchased for the Harvard Library from the income of the fund given by Harvard graduates on President Eliot's ninetieth birthday, March 20, 1924. The bookplate was drawn by Sidney L. Smith, of Boston. The fund amounts to about $7,700. In accordance with President Eliot's wishes, as expressed in a letter written in September, 1924, the income of the fund will be used for books on the following subjects:

(a) The history of education. (b) The progress of American science since 1790. (c) Democratic government in the world since the battle of Magenta. (d) The endowment method for institutions of education and charity in the United States. (e) Toleration in religion and religious unity in the United States. (f) Individual pioneering in regard to social and political problems.

THE Pennsylvania State Education Association will meet in Lancaster on December 28 and 29.

URBANA UNIVERSITY, Urbana, Ohio, receives a bequest of $100,000 by the will of James Griswold Wentz, of New York City.

THE final day for filing applications for admission to the colleges of Arts, Sciences and Architecture at Cornell University has been advanced from August 1 to June 1. This change has been made because college authorities desire not to place unnecessary burden on the applicants forced to wait until August 1, before knowing whether or not they had been admitted. By being advised on June 1 as to their status, applicants can make arrangements elsewhere if they can not enter the university.

Two awards for constructive activity in social, civic or industrial fields of public effort are announced by the Harmon Foundation. The sum of $1,000 with a gold medal will be awarded to an individual who makes a distinct contribution to welfare work in this country. Selection is to be based not so much upon immediate results as upon their potential influence on American life. Officials who in their line of duty produce something of lasting benefit, and private citizens whose work marks a new step in social, civic and industrial welfare are eligible for consideration. The second award of $500 with a gold medal will be given to the author of that article appearing in any American publication in 1927 which is of signal benefit in stimulating constructive public opinion in the United States in the social or industrial field. The prize will be given on the basis of the social importance of the subject discussed, the value of the material presented and the manner in which it is prepared.

WALTER R. HERRICK, park commissioner of New York City, in outlining his plans for the future development of city playgrounds, said that the present 33-acre site of the south reservoir in Central Park is to be converted into a playground with the financial assistance of August Heckscher, who has offered a gift of $50,000.

THE fourteenth annual meeting of the American Association of Urban Universities opened at the Carnegie Institute of Technology at Pittsburgh on November 3. Among the speakers

were Dr. Frederick P. Keppel, president of the Carnegie Corporation, New York; Dr. Louis I. Harris, commissioner of health of the city of New York; Parke R. Kolbe, president, Brooklyn Polytechnic Institute; Dr. Hollis Godfrey, president, Engineering-Economics Foundation; Dr. James E. Cutler, Western Reserve University; Chancellor S. P. Capen, the University of Buffalo; Homer St. Gaudens, and Dr. Andrey Avinoff, Carnegie Museum.

THE seventeenth annual meeting of the National Council of Teachers of English will be held in Chicago on November 24, 25 and 26, under the presidency of Dudley H. Miles, of the Evander High School, New York City. On Thursday evening there will be an open conference on "Objective Tests in teaching Literature," and the address of the president will be delivered at ten o'clock on the following morning. The conference will meet in sections, with chairmen as follows: High-school Section, J. M. Spinning, West High School, Rochester, New York, and Susan E. Wilcox, Springfield, Illinois, High School; Junior High-school Section, Claude E. Crumpton, Hutchins Intermediate School, Detroit; College Section, C. C. Fries, University of Michigan; Joint meeting of Elementary and Normal Sections, C. C. Certain, Detroit Teachers' College; Normal School Section, Conrad T. Logan, State Teachers' College, Harrisonburg, Virginia. On the afternoon of November 26, Professor John Matthews Manly, of the University of Chicago, will deliver an illustrated lecture entitled "Some New Light on Chaucer," and there will be an exhibit of Chaucer manuscripts and photostats in the workroom of the English department of the university.

MEMBERS of the Massachusetts School Masters' Club observed its fiftieth anniversary at a dinner, conference and business meeting in Boston on September 29. The three speakers took the club as a subject, Dr. Arthur C. Boyden, principal, State Normal School at Bridgewater, speaking of "The Past"; Dr. Jeremiah E. Burke, superintendent of Boston schools, of "The Present," and Dr. Payson Smith, commissioner of education for Massachusetts, of "The Future."

A SERIES of free lectures on educational subjects is offered to the public during the present academic year by the University of Pennsylvania. The lectures are given in Houston Hall. The opening one was by Dr. P. W. Kuo, director of the China Institute in America, who spoke on "What does China expect of America?" Canon Edmund Horace Fellows, organist to King George V, lectured on "The Elizabethan Madrigals" on November 2. Other lectures in the series were: "Shakespeare as an Actor in his own Plays," by Austin Kevingham Gray, professor of English at Haverford College, on November 4; "Mountain Climbing in the Alps," by Dr. Walter W. Hyde, professor of Greek in the University of Pennsylvania, on November 11. Other lectures are: November 14, "The Educational System of France," by Auguste C. Desclos, of Paris; November 18, "The Working-Out of the Democratic and Scientific Conception of Education in China," by Dr. Sidney Wei, of Canton, China; December 9, "Indian Music and its Relation to Universal Musical Art," by Frederic Cardin Pejawah; December 16, "Japan's Policies toward Russia and China," by Dr. Yusuke Tsurumi; January 13, "The Influence of the Chinese Renaissance on Contemporary Conditions," by Arthur W. Hummel.

THE Educational Museum of the St. Louis Public Schools has been temporarily placed in a large store and office building, following the tornado which struck the city of St. Louis, on September 29. According to C. G. Rathmann, the director, it is hoped to get the museum in working order again within a short time. The building in which the museum was originally housed was so badly wrecked by the storm that it can not be used without an entire rebuilding. The museum material was housed in the center of the building and about ninety-five per cent. of it was saved, as was the traveling library consisting of a hundred and twenty-five thousand volumes of supplementary reading which circulate in the schools. The teachers' library suffered heaviest damage, as only about fifty per cent. of its material could be saved from the ruins. As it is not known when it will be possible to find permanent quarters for the museum again all efforts at present are being directed toward the reestablishment of the usual school service.

NINETY-FIVE per cent. of kindergarten and first-grade children in public schools of the Dis-

trict of Columbia, according to a statement made by the U. S. Bureau of Education, have physical defects as shown by a recent report of the health officer. Many of these were of minor character, but in the opinion of the health officer all needed correction. A total of 41,776 physical examinations were made by medical inspectors during the year 1926–27, but on account of the inadequate force only the younger children, 3,761, could be given thorough examinations. Of these 67.8 per cent. were found to have defective teeth; 46.7 per cent., diseased tonsils, and 33.2 per cent., enlarged cervical glands. Among other defects noted were: Poor nutrition, 24.3 per cent.; defective nasal breathing, 21.9 per cent.; defective vision, 12.3 per cent.; orthopedic defects, 10.9 per cent.; anemia, 9.1 per cent., and cardiac disease, 2.3 per cent. Of 124 children reported as retarded in their classes, 120 were found to have some physical defect. The health department also examined 1,095 applicants for appointments as teachers, and only 366, or 33.4 per cent., were passed unconditionally.

EIGHT faculty members and eight students, including Kenneth Rouse, captain of the football team, have been appointed by President Max Mason, of the University of Chicago, to the Board of Social Service and Religion which is to organize a constructive program for the religious interests of the University of Chicago. "The abolition of compulsory chapel last spring was only a first step in the development of a constructive program for the religious interests of the university," the board said in an announcement of its policy. In making the first statement of policy, the board wishes to emphasize that it does not plan to maintain any single dogmatic formulation of religion, nor to establish a university church, nor to organize the religious life of the university upon exclusively ecclesiastical models. It will seek to cooperate, as far as practicable, with all the churches of the neighborhood, but it conceives its function to be the discovery and the expression of the religious life of the university itself. "Recognizing that religious motives have played a large part in the development of the university, and that the education the university would impart is not complete until its sons and daughters have their own convictions as to the highest values of life, the board believes that its special task is to multiply opportunities for the acquisition, expression and deepening of every form of idealism worthy to command the respect of the university community."

A FIVE-YEAR course in health education, individual, social and public, has been instituted by presidential decree in elementary, high and normal schools of Colombia, South America. In addition to regular instruction in rural and night schools, educational pamphlets on health will be given pupils for home use.

AN intellectual intercourse agreement has been signed by Belgium and Holland, by which a regular exchange of university professors will be effected. Two bursaries are instituted, one for a Belgian and one for a Dutch citizen desiring to continue their studies in the other country. A permanent technical commission will be formed for this purpose, one section in Brussels and one in The Hague. An exchange of artists and authors is also contemplated.

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE

COMMERCIAL EDUCATION

THE executive board of the Eastern Commercial Teachers' Association at a recent meeting adopted a professional program of great importance to American commercial education. This professional program is planned to result in the preparation and printing of three year-books in commercial education, as follows:

1928, "Foundations of Commercial Education"
1929, "Curriculum-making in Commercial Education"
1930, "Administration and Supervision of Commercial Education"

These year-books are to be known as the "Basic Studies Series in Commercial Education." The executive committee of the Eastern Commercial Teachers' Association is to serve as the year-book commission.

These year-books will grow out of the 1928, 1929 and 1930 annual conventions. The 1928 program, for example, will have for its general topic: "Where are we going in commercial education?" To answer this question we must determine at the outset from where are we starting in commercial education. This suggests four main phases of the program:

1. A philosophy of commercial education to answer the question: What kind of business life, as an embodiment of best American social life, should we seek to build?

2. A technique of research in commercial education to answer the question: What method of work should we use to build a commercial education that fits the desired kind of American business life?

3. Research cases in commercial education to answer the question: What scientific data have we now available upon which to base a reconstruction of commercial education in keeping with the desired kind of American business life?

4. Problems in commercial teacher-training to answer the questions:

(a) How do the qualifications of the commercial teacher compare with those of other teacher groups?

(b) What should be the nature of the commercial teacher-training curriculum that will prepare the kind of commercial teacher who can realize the social mission of commercial education in American business life?

All these questions will be dealt with at the 1928 convention in the general and departmental meetings. Every part of the program is being planned so that it will result in a unified year-book of basic importance not only to commercial education but to the whole field of American education. The Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association during the past year produced a Fifth Year-book devoted to the reorganization of the curriculum of the junior high school. It included a chapter on the place and scope of commercial subjects in the junior high school. The Sixth Year-book of the Department of Superintendence to be issued in 1928 will discuss the senior high school curriculum. Both of these year-books attempt to present the best theory and practice in the organization of high school commercial education courses. These year-books are of major importance to all commercial educators whether in private or public schools, secondary or collegiate.

The directors of the Eastern Commercial Teachers' Association believe that the commercial teachers in the association should cooperate with the Department of Superintendence by producing a series of year-books that will supplement the year-books of the department. The plan of the association to issue year-books is expected to result in the leadership in constructive planning for whatever reorganization of our commercial curricula is needed being taken by the association rather than by the department whose members are particularly well qualified to know in just what ways commercial courses need to be changed in order to be made more efficient both socially and economically.

According to the plan of the directors of the Eastern Commercial Teachers' Association every commercial teacher may obtain a copy of each year-book simply by enrolling as a member of the association and paying the $2.00 membership dues. One thousand paid members is the goal of the 1928 convention that will be held at the Hotel Pennsylvania, New York City, on April 5, 6 and 7.

The officers of the association who have undertaken this splendid project are: *President,* Dr. Paul S. Lomax, New York University; *Vice-president,* Mabel S. Hastings, Girls' High School, Boston; *Secretary,* Seth B. Carkin, Packard School, New York City; *Executive Board,* Harry Good, George L. Hoffacker, Irvin L. Lindabury, John A. Luman, Alexander Pugh and Milton F. Stauffer.

E. W. BARNHART
CHIEF OF THE COMMERCIAL EDUCATION SERVICE,
FEDERAL BOARD FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION,
WASHINGTON, D. C.

DISCUSSION

SPORTS VERSUS MILITARY TRAINING IN THE GERMAN REPUBLIC

WHEN the revolution in Germany swept imperialism aside, many social traditions and customs followed to oblivion. The abolition of compulsory military training caused a decided void to be felt in the social life of the German people. Aside from its purely militaristic purpose of making well drilled and perfectly trained soldiers out of the mass of rather raw material, military training had also a tremendous educating influence upon the angular, unpolished, often crude and even uncouth recruit, who had never left his out-of-the-way native village until the draft for army service reached him. Now he was brought in contact with the cultured atmosphere of the city. He met other than his own clannish folks, had an opportunity of seeing a play or hearing good music. Twice or three times a week he was required to attend

"instructions," where he learned some history and geography, together with getting a general review of other elementary school subjects. Hence a thorough elementary school training up to the fourteenth year, succeeded by two or three years of "continuation school" to the sixteenth or seventeenth year, this again followed by these "instruction" evenings while in service to the twentieth or twenty-first year, made it possible for Germany to boast of the lowest percentage of illiterates among the nations in the world.

Of course, the chief benefit of military training was found in the physical development, the perfect adjustment of the muscles, the precise coordination between nervous system and muscular system, and—last, but by no means least—a thorough training in endurance. This scientific physical training supplied the explanation of the marvelous endurance evidenced by the marching regiments with full equipment, covering on the average thirty-five miles and more per day.

The abolition of this systematic, scientific physical training was keenly felt, and an unprecedented zeal was put forth to encourage and support all kinds of sport. The Germans have always been interested in gymnastics —*mens sana in corpore sano*—hence the existence of numerous "Turnvereine," in Germany as well as in other lands where Germans were found in larger numbers. But now a new spirit is sweeping over Germany, and new impetus has been given to physical training, so that favorite sports of other nations are drawn within the scope of German physical training. In the future we may find Germans among the champions in American baseball (*vide* the roster of our national baseball teams of today), in English lawn tennis, in Scandinavian javelin throwing, etc. Vierkotter, the German baker who swam the English channel last year, is reported to have won £6,000 sterling in a swimming race in Canada this summer. In Bologna, the German swimmer Rademacher won the European championship in 200-meter breast stroke, while his friend, Hans Luber, won the championship in fancy diving. In the final scores Germany was credited with a total of 111 points, Sweden with 79 points, Hungary with 60 points, Italy 31 points, Belgium 21 points, France 16 points, etc. A group of Hamburg "Sea Scouts," a branch of the Boy Scouts, won the European championship in a sailing contest held in London this summer. These examples, of course, merely indicate the excellent results of individual training, and can never claim to take the place of general physical training as formerly given in the army.

However, the most interesting and striking fact is, that communities as a whole are giving most careful attention to the support and development of sports. There is not a German city of consequence to-day that has not set aside within the last few years large tracts of land within easy reach of schools, and most carefully prepared for the pursuit of all kinds of sports. Hamburg has numerous sport grounds occupying many city blocks on the outskirts of the city. If Frederic C. Howe's count is correct, Frankfort numbers 142 playing-fields, sport grounds, gymnasiums and swimming pools. In addition to this, the same city boasts of the latest, largest and perhaps the best equipped stadium in Europe. Leipzig has sacrificed even some of its pretty community gardens to make room for public sport grounds. Formerly schools were closed on Wednesday and Saturday afternoons. Now the educational authorities of many cities utilize these two afternoons for organized physical training and sports. As the large playgrounds are generally some distance from the schools, the street cars, usually owned by the municipality, will transport the children free of charge to the playgrounds, where competitive games are arranged not only among boys, but also between boys and girls, and between their different schools. Hence the spirit of old Sparta seems to sweep over the new republic.

It is especially noteworthy how this new spirit is reflected in the intellectual and social life of the people. The custodian of the splendidly organized Frankfort museum made the statement to the writer that owing to the general interest in sports not only the number of visitors and attendants at public lectures has noticeably decreased, but also the financial support, coming from membership fees, has suffered a decided loss, as some of the money that

formerly had been devoted to educational purposes was now diverted to the pursuit of sports. Wealthy men found the latter so costly that they were forced to curtail their contributions for educational institutions.

Daily newspapers, including the quite conservative press, which formerly consistently ignored sports, except to publish items of a certain news value, are now reserving entire pages to the recording of sport events, both national and international. Sport in all its phases is carefully reviewed by experts, and national events are specially featured.

It is to be expected that this general interest in sports would be carried into the family circle. Should one have an opportunity to "sit in" at the discussion around the table of a German family, he would be amused at the interest taken by male and female members of the family in the various sport events. No American family can discuss baseball more enthusiastically and lovingly than many German families discuss their favorites in the world of sports. Father, mother, sons and daughters share equally in the enthusiastic conversation dealing with various athletic events.

Thus has physical training and the pursuit of sports supplanted the old compulsory military training.

K. E. RICHTER

THE COLLEGE OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

QUOTATIONS

EXPRESSION VERSUS REPRESSION

IF one were requested to state in as brief a form as possible the main difference between educational practice to-day and that of a quarter of a century ago, he might truthfully say: "It is the substitution of expression for repression." The educational process that we adults knew as school children was a process of constraint. We were constrained to obey definite rules of discipline. Doubtless they were good rules—certainly from the point of view of the adults who made them; but they were not made from a keen insight into child nature, or with any considerable appreciation of the intelligence of childhood. Schoolmasters, with a few notable exceptions, accepted the handed-down theory that children are by nature disobedient and rebellious to authority. They also underrated the intelligence of children. Hence, there were sets of rigid rules to be observed, and the nonconformists were visited by various forms of punishment, from standing in the corner on one foot to receiving a vigorous beating before the class. Whispering and laughing, which are normal expressions of childhood, were often punished equally with lying and cheating, which are immoral and anti-social expressions.

To-day we know that normal children are not naturally rebellious against authority; and that they are far more intelligent than we used to believe them to be. We need rules or agreements in any social group, whether it be a class or a community. There can be no orderly procedure without them. There is a difference, however, in the effectiveness of rules that are merely set by authority, and those that are understood and intelligently accepted by those who are to observe them. People of all ages do naturally rebel against the former; but children will cheerfully conform to the latter type of regulations, especially when under the guidance of a skillful teacher, they are taught to understand the need for certain regulations, when such regulations naturally develop from class contacts. When, further, the children are given an opportunity to participate in establishing these regulations, it is surprising how fine a cooperative spirit will develop even among very young pupils. Under such intelligent treatment, which is the usual method in good schools, children will develop a sense of responsibility and responsiveness, which was never thought possible in the days of the "birch and rule."

We find a similar change in the process of instruction. A quarter of a century ago there was practically one set course of study which all were constrained to follow. Little effort was made to adapt the curriculum to the varying capacities and needs of different groups or individuals. That was especially true in the high schools, where a uniform, academic course, chiefly designed in the interest of those who were preparing for college, was the rule. The result was a frightful percentage of mortality

among the students. If ten per cent. of the school survived to appear on the platform at commencement, it was a cause for unctuous rejoicing. The fittest had survived. But what of the remaining ninety per cent.? Perhaps they were unfit to pursue a collegiate course. But were they not fit for something else, possibly some service in life as valuable to society as the collegians would render? Probably Thomas Edison or Henry Ford would not have survived an academic course. Is it not our business as educators to find out what that form of fitness is that the unacademic minds possess, and to discover how it can be best developed, so that as many of the ninety per cent. as possible may be brought to the completion of some course that will equip them to make the fullest use of their peculiar talents? This is precisely what the best schools are doing. They accept accountability for human wastage just as conscientiously as the superintendent of an industrial plant accepts accountability for material wastage. Instead of pouring all through the same educational mould, they offer opportunities for all varieties of talent to express themselves, and to profit as much as the facilities of the school will permit.

The original meaning of education was to draw out (Latin *educere*). The schoolmasters of our childhood for the most part seemed to proceed on the theory that education meant just the opposite process—pouring in—pouring in facts from textbooks which were supposed to be the final word on the subject. Everywhere the practice of repression was in evidence. Children were compelled, often at the point of a stick, to commit to memory pages of textbooks. Even history was often dealt with in this manner. Children with the best memories for facts were naturally the best scholars.

While it is still necessary to memorize certain important items in most subjects, such as certain salient rules in mathematics, or formulae in chemistry, the tendency is the other way—namely, to encourage the pupil to express his ideas freely, and to form logical conclusions from given data. Ability to think is more important than ability to reproduce facts. Facts can be looked up in handbooks and encyclopedias by one who has had a little training in consulting references; but the ability to form sound conclusions, and to be mentally resourceful in attacking new problems, can develop only under conditions where the mind is free to react independently on given facts, and to express itself freely as opinions are reached. To-day under skillful teachers we find pupils, even in the elementary grades, propounding their own questions, often questioning one another, and even conducting their own recitations. This does not mean that the teacher has surrendered his authority to the class. It means that the teacher has developed in the pupils a sense of responsibility and a degree of resourcefulness that make such a healthy situation possible.

The old picture of a schoolroom, with a homely old maid with corkscrew curls, sitting on a high platform holding a stick, with a disorderly class before her, is no longer a faithful picture of a class in school; although some newspaper cartoonists have not yet discovered the fact. To-day, almost universally, we find a spirit of cooperation, responsiveness, industry and happiness in the schoolrooms of the country. Corporal punishment, the favorite incentive of the old school, is rarely if ever resorted to to-day in a well-conducted school. The children are too busy with interesting work to make trouble. The changed attitude of children towards school is well demonstrated by the fact that over twenty thousand attend summer school of their own accord in our own city, and with a regularity of attendance that has never been attained during the regular school year.

The most satisfactory explanation of the new spirit in education is undoubtedly the substitution of expression for repression.—*From the Annual Report of the Philadelphia Superintendent of Schools, Dr. Edwin G. Broome.*

SOCIETIES AND MEETINGS

THE COLLEGE ENTRANCE EXAMINATION BOARD

"SMALL but startling" was the term by which Secretary Thomas S. Fiske characterized the deficit for 1927 in the operation of the College Entrance Examination Board in reporting at the annual meeting of the board held November 3

at Columbia University. Disbursements exceeded revenue by $1,653. In previous years there has always been a modest balance.

The explanation lies, Dr. Fiske said, in the growth in the number of candidates examined, which has risen from 18,231 in 1922 to 22,384 in 1927, without an increase in the examination fee sufficient to offset the decline in the value of the dollar. The expenses of the board per candidate have risen from $7.98 five years ago to $11.11 this year. The examination fee is $10 per candidate, and the deficit must now be met through the sale of the board's publications and membership dues of participating colleges.

"If the number of candidates continues to increase during the next few years," said Dr. Fiske, "at the same rate as in recent years the board will be able to avoid a radical increase in the examination fee only through the financial assistance of those who recognize the value of its work to the cause of sound education in America." Toward this end the board later plans to seek an endowment fund.

An extension of the scope of the board's scholastic aptitude test was announced by Professor Carl C. Brigham, of Princeton University, chairman of the commission of psychologists. This test was given in 1926 and 1927 to a total of more than 15,000 candidates, all of whom were in the last year of their high-school course. In 1928 and thereafter the test will be open to students in earlier years of their high-school course. As the board's content examinations are similarly open, colleges will now have facilities available to select candidates a year in advance of entrance. The need for such facilities was urged at the board's meeting last April.

In his report Professor Brigham told about changes in the scholastic aptitude test for 1928, by which a more generous allowance of time will be given the candidate in each sub-test. "We are perfecting our technique, so that the test will be increasingly useful as one member of a group of admission criteria and useful also for guidance after the student is in college." Dr. Brigham added that studies of school records made in cooperation with certain schools whose graduates have taken the test show that "it points backward as well as forward."

Special examinations for foreign students are not feasible at present, according to the report of Professor Robert N. Corwin, of Yale, chairman of the committee of review. The committee looked into this possibility in response to a request of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and of individual institutions which receive students from the Orient and Europe. Professor Corwin said that the new Latin word list, prepared for the board by a commission, is nearly ready for distribution. Upon his motion, the chairman of the board was instructed to appoint a commission to consider revision of the ancient history definition. The board voted to consider next April a motion to adopt in its entirety the English definition set forth by the National Conference on English.

Reporting as chairman for the committee on examination ratings, Dr. Wilson Farrand, of Newark Academy, told of the prompt reporting to candidates and colleges of ratings of last June's examinations, due to an increased clerical force and to efficient handling. Miss Elizabeth Forrest Johnson, principal of the Baldwin School, described her inspection last June of the reading and handling of examination papers by the 700 readers of the board.

"The whole work of the board's office is carried on so efficiently," said President Mary E. Woolley, of Mount Holyoke, "that we seldom realize its magnitude. Literally tons of papers are handled and thousands of persons are dealt with in an admirable way." President Woolley, who is retiring as chairman of the board, referred to her pleasure in its service during the past four years. She now becomes custodian.

The new chairman is Henry Pennypacker, of Harvard University, and the vice-chairman is Professor H. W. Tyler, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Professor Fiske, of Columbia University, was reelected secretary and treasurer, and other members of the executive committee were elected as follows: Professor R. N. Corwin, of Yale; Professor Radcliffe Heermance, of Princeton; Vice-provost G. W. McClelland, of the University of Pennsylvania; Islay F. McCormick, of the Albany Academy; President Ellen F. Pendleton, of Wellesley College; Dr. Alfred E. Stearns, of Phillips Andover Academy, and President Mary E. Woolley, of Mount Holyoke.

RAYMOND WALTERS
SWARTHMORE COLLEGE

EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND STATISTICS

THE RELATION OF ACHIEVEMENT BETWEEN COLLEGE FRATERNITY AND NON-FRATERNITY GROUPS[1]

I. General Considerations

Colleges and universities have been concerned with the scholastic value of social fraternities for some years. An undetermined number of institutions of learning dogmatically adhere to their traditional policy of not allowing a place for fraternities amid the glow of wide and varied campus activities of their students. On the other hand, many universities insist that the college life of their students would be incomplete without the stimulative training received by living and working with fraternity brothers and sorority sisters. Some of these latter institutions are so convinced of this hypothesis that the fraternity homes have become just as much a part of their necessary equipment as buildings for classrooms, lecture halls and laboratories.

Most of the discussions of this problem have been based upon mere opinion. Very few studies of scientific merit from a psycho-educational point of view have ever been undertaken, as far as can be determined, to show the relation of social fraternities to the student's scholastic life. Most of the computations that have been made thus far have been carried on within the bounds of registrar's offices of various institutions. As a result of this work, tables have been published from time to time showing the relative scholastic positions of the social fraternities. This work has been creditable, but usually extends over a period of just one semester or one college year and consequently it would be impossible to draw general conclusions which would be significant.

The most extensive compilation of this type is that reported by D. A. Worcester,[2] who compared the figures from ten colleges and universities. In using the registrars' averages from such a large number of schools, the same conditions are considered under varied environments. Thus, the conclusions drawn here would be decidedly general for the average campus environment. To reduce these varied conditions to a comparable basis, the computer of these statistics considered the average grade given for each school as 100 and then made proportional deviations from this, to show the relative standing of sorority, non-sorority, fraternity and non-fraternity groups. Table I gives a summary of these data as found:

TABLE I

Averages for Fraternity and Non-Fraternity Groups from Ten Colleges

School	Sorority	Non-Soror.	Total	Fraternity	Non-Frat.
U. of Okla.	114.7	101.18	100	100.03	96.44
U. of Wis.	108.65	108.05	100	97.9	88.8
Kansas State T. C.	107.3	99.82	100	97.52	97.77
Baker U.	107.52	104.87	100	94.09	91.65
U. of Colo.	103.84	100.2	100	99.10	99.61
Northwestern U.	117.53	110.24	100	84.809	75.85
U. of Kansas	105.51	103.9	100	82.74	89.54
U. of Penn.	110.36	115.41	100	94.945	93.682
U. of Mich.	109.51	107.72	100	97.1	100.27
Stanford U.	107.84	119.86	100	98.634	89.62
Average	109.24	107.12	100	94.68	92.32

The averages in this table are taken from the records of the registrar of each college for the second semester of the year 1921–22. Examination of the figures shows the average of the sorority group to be 109.24 or 2.12 higher than the non-sorority group, which has an average of 107.12. The figure given for the fraternity group is 94.68 or 2.36 higher than that of the non-fraternity group given as 92.32. Due to the fact that the statistical significance of these differences is not known, no definite conclusion can be drawn.

II. Fraternity Environment at the University of Maine—Methods

In the specific research conducted for this paper the registrar's records for 2,817 students of the University of Maine were scrutinized.

[1] Acknowledgment is due to Dr. C. C. Little, now president of the University of Michigan, and to Dr. John W. Gowen, now of the Rockefeller Foundation, for many suggestions and helpful criticisms during the preparation of this study.

[2] School and Society, XVIII, pp. 147–148, 1923.

Among the facts singled out for attention were 36,174 marks which these students received in certain freshman and sophomore subjects.

The records of the first two years of the student were considered more valuable than the junior and senior years for the purpose of determining the relative significance of fraternity environment, as those are the critical years of any student. Then, too, there have been cases in the past when fraternities recognized their scholastic standing as being low and sought to affiliate non-fraternity members of the upper classes whose scholastic average has been markedly high. This in turn would raise the average of the group. At points in the records where it was discovered that such and similar attempts of fraternities have met with success, the specific cases were ignored and not included with the data used to draw the conclusion of this study.

The data obtained were punched upon the standard Hollerith tabulating cards so that they might be conveniently sorted for calculations. Before the actual punching of cards began, the scope of the study was determined, in part, by existing conditions. From the nature of the records a starting-point seemed to be conspicuously marked with the class entering the fall of 1909. It was at this time that the present system of grades using the letters A, B, C, D, E and F was substituted for a more intricate system of numbers. The last year for which data were obtainable was also fixed with the class that graduated just previous to the time that this work was begun, namely, the class of 1924, which entered in the fall of 1920. Only the regular college students who entered with their respective classes were considered for this study.

Further limitations were recognized in the number of courses which had enrolments sufficiently significant to justify any conclusions obtainable. The marks of the students in these subjects were indicated on the tabulating cards for both semesters, but later calculations proved that there was no significant difference between the marks given in each subject for the first semester and for the second semester. Unless the subject was only taught the second semester of the school year, the marks for the first semester in each subject have been used.

For computation purposes, numerical values had to be assigned to the marks found. The following values were arbitrarily fixed:

A 95–100	midpoint	97.5
B 85– 94	midpoint	90.0
C 75– 84	midpoint	80.0
D 65– 74	midpoint	70.0
E 55– 64	midpoint	60.0
F 45– 54	midpoint	50.0

It is conceivable that the casual reader whose college experiences are still vivid will object to the validity of teachers' marks as a measure of scholastic ability, since the tendency has always been for each instructor to set his individual standards in grading students. True, these standards vary. The period of eleven years over which this study has been made is considered sufficient, however, to establish a compensatory balance between the instructors who have had low standards and those who have had high standards.

TABLE II

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF FRESHMAN SUBJECTS FOR THE NON-FRATERNITY, NON-GRADUATE GROUP

Subject	N	Mean	P.E.	S.D.	P.E.
English	523	75.942	± .358	12.143	± .253
Chemistry	387	77.209	± .365	10.650	± .258
Algebra	280	78.205	± .511	12.678	± .361
Geometry	236	76.674	± .608	13.856	± .430
Elem. French	72	81.528	± .932	11.734	± .659
Adv. French	53	86.085	± .775	8.371	± .548
Elem. German	189	81.138	± .515	10.493	± .364

TABLE III

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF FRESHMAN SUBJECTS FOR THE NON-FRATERNITY GRADUATE GROUP

Subject	N	Mean	P.E.	S.D.	P.E.
English	886	76.143	± .232	10.250	± .164
Chemistry	680	78.243	± .267	10.308	± .188
Algebra	512	79.507	± .359	12.052	± .254
Geometry	257	79.070	± .401	12.718	± .283
Elem. French	130	81.135	± .678	11.465	± .479
Adv. French	115	85.609	± .599	9.532	± .423
Elem. German	309	80.743	± .405	10.563	± .287

TABLE IV

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF FRESHMAN SUBJECTS FOR THE FRATERNITY, NON-GRADUATE GROUP. DIFFERENCES SHOWN

Subject	N	Mean P.E.	S.D. P.E.	Diff. P.E.
English	765	75.320 ± .281	11.440 ± .198	0.622 ± .455
Chemistry	643	74.778 ± .272	10.225 ± .192	2.431 ± .455
Algebra	488	75.113 ± .369	12.076 ± .261	3.092 ± .638
Geometry	393	73.473 ± .404	11.872 ± .286	3.201 ± .730
Elem. French	119	80.021 ± .642	10.397 ± .454	1.507 ± 1.131
Adv. French	57	84.649 ± .874	9.786 ± .618	1.436 ± 1.168
Elem. German	295	78.229 ± .446	11.353 ± .315	2.909 ± .681

III. COMPARISON OF FRATERNITY MEN TO NON-FRATERNITY MEN BY SUBJECTS

A. *Freshman Subjects*

In making a detailed study of the relation between a fraternity environment and scholastic standing, it would seem significant to consider the relation within each subject. The subjects taken in the freshman year are the first considered. Table II gives the means and standard deviations of freshman subjects for the non-fraternity men who did not graduate. Table III is similar for the non-fraternity men who graduated. Tables IV and V are records of fraternity men, non-graduates and graduates respectively. These latter two tables also give the differences between the fraternity and non-fraternity means and probable errors of these differences. N in each table is the total number of marks.

A comparison of Tables II and IV brings to light some interesting facts. It is noticed that in English there is a slight difference of .62 in favor of the non-fraternity group. Since the probable error here is .455, the difference can hardly be considered significant. The difference in favor of this same group in chemistry is considerably more significant, being 2.43. Still larger and in favor of the same group are the differences in algebra and geometry being, respectively, 3.09 and 3.20. Because of the large probable errors in elementary and advanced French, these differences are not appreciable. That in German is again worthy of note, being 2.90 in favor of the non-fraternity group. Thus the examination of these tables for non-graduates points to a tendency for the means of marks to be slightly in favor of the non-fraternity men.

A like comparison of Tables III and V reveals differences in an opposite direction. There is a difference in English noted here of −3.19, the negative sign showing that the mean of the fraternity men is higher than that of the non-fraternity men. The same group is favored with a higher average in algebra by −2.83; in geometry by −1.98 and in elementary French

TABLE V

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF FRESHMAN SUBJECTS FOR THE FRATERNITY, GRADUATE GROUP. DIFFERENCES SHOWN

Subject	N	Mean P.E.	S.D. P.E.	Diff. P.E.
English	1083	79.335 ± .172	8.396 ± .122	−3.192 ± .289
Chemistry	899	78.839 ± .241	10.635 ± .170	−0.596 ± .360
Algebra	711	82.345 ± .287	11.334 ± .203	−2.838 ± .461
Geometry	668	81.055 ± .289	11.074 ± .204	−1.985 ± .494
Elem. French	136	83.051 ± .598	10.349 ± .423	−1.916 ± .904
Adv. French	181	85.276 ± .454	9.063 ± .321	0.333 ± .751
Elem. German	334	81.385 ± .395	10.690 ± .279	−0.642 ± .566

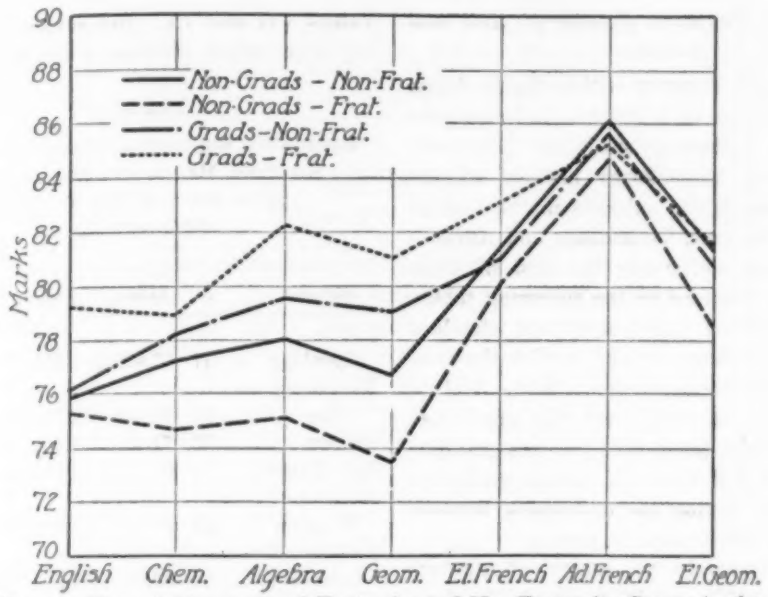

FIG. 1. Mean Achievement of Fraternity and Non-Fraternity Groups in the Freshman Subjects of the Entire University.

by −1.91. The differences in chemistry, advanced French and elementary German are not significant. The general deduction for those who later graduated is thus apparent, in the freshman subjects, that the fraternity men stand above the non-fraternity men scholastically.

These conclusions become more discernible in Figure I. In observing the dotted line, it is clearly seen how the fraternity men who graduated lead in all subjects except advanced French and elementary German. The next highest group is that of non-fraternity graduates. Non-fraternity non-graduates come third but yet appear insignificantly superior in advanced French. The lowest line on the chart represents the non-graduates of fraternities. Because of the slight differences among these groups, it is impossible to infer that the average student will make a better record scholastically if he affiliates himself with a fraternity or *vice versa*. Within safe limits, however, the observable tendency can be accepted for the freshman year, that the poorer student has a better chance if he does not belong to a fraternity while the better student appears to be able to do superior work within a fraternity environment.

TABLE VI

SOPHOMORE SUBJECTS, COLLEGE OF ARTS AND SCIENCES, MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR THE NON-GRADUATE NON-FRATERNITY GROUP

Subject	N	Mean	P.E.	S.D.	P.E.
Public Speaking	97	76.959	± .798	11.675	± .565
Exp. Composition	32	74.687	± 1.430	11.991	± 1.011
Physics	111	71.734	± .704	10.991	± .498
Lab. Physics	83	82.229	± .687	9.284	± .486
Money and Banking	46	77.065	± 1.027	10.327	± .726
Prin. of Economics	22	73.182	± 1.525	10.607	± 1.079
Calculus	67	73.134	± 1.082	13.130	± .765
Genetics	19	76.316	± 1.525	9.856	± 1.078
Biology	24	73.333	± 1.234	8.966	± .873
English Literature	27	78.796	± 1.574	12.128	± 1.113
Spanish	12	77.083	± 2.979	15.299	± 2.106
Elem. German	9	82.222	± 1.412	6.279	± .998
Adv. German	17	83.971	± .930	5.625	± .651
Adv. French	19	80.658	± 1.552	10.032	± 1.098
Med. and Mod. History	12	80.000	± 1.124	5.773	± .795
Psychology	6	79.583	± 3.381	12.277	± 2.390

B. *Sophomore Subjects: College of Arts and Sciences*

Following such a survey within the freshman year, the next item of interest is to investigate the trend for sophomore subjects. This work has been done by colleges because of the uniquely distinguishing subjects in the College of Arts and Sciences, Technology and Agriculture. The data concerning the first of these mentioned are included in the following tables. Table VI contains the means and standard deviations of sophomore subjects for the non-graduate, non-fraternity men. Table VII is similar for non-fraternity men who graduated. Table VIII shows the results for non-graduate fraternity men and Table IX for the graduated fraternity men, giving the differences between these and the non-fraternity group.

Viewing alternately the means of subjects given in Tables VI and VIII reveals the facts for non-graduates. This can best be done by a study of the column headed differences. In only four subjects: principles of economics, genetics, biology and medieval and modern history, are the probable errors of the differences notably smaller than the differences. Even in these four cases the probable error is sufficiently large to make the dissimilarity of little value from the standpoint of any prediction.

Similar results are found in a comparison of Tables VII and IX. Six subjects, here, stand out with larger differences than the probable

TABLE VII

Sophomore Subjects—College of Arts and Sciences, Means and Standard Deviations for the Non-Fraternity, Graduate Group

Subject	N	Mean	P.E.	S.D.	P.E.
Public Speaking	17	83.971	± 1.654	10.110	± 1.169
Exp. Composition	16	80.469	± 2.232	13.237	± 1.578
Physics	23	76.413	± 1.661	11.808	± 1.174
Lab. Physics	16	84.062	± 1.812	10.745	± 1.281
Money and Banking	23	78.913	± 1.654	11.763	± 1.170
Prin. of Economics	24	80.208	± 1.291	9.383	± .913
Calculus	17	85.000	± 1.308	7.998	± .925
Genetics	—	—	—	—	—
Biology	9	76.667	± 2.598	11.554	± 1.837
English Liter.	35	80.571	± 1.075	9.429	± .760
Spanish	18	87.361	± 1.530	9.636	± 1.082
Elem. German	5	84.000	± 2.413	8.000	± 1.706
Adv. German	20	86.375	± 1.551	10.285	± 1.097
Adv. French	31	85.323	± 1.142	9.431	± .808
Med. and Mod. Hist.	19	83.947	± 1.076	6.951	± .761
Psychology	25	80.300	± .947	6.940	± .662

TABLE VIII

Sophomore Subjects—College of Arts and Sciences, Means, Standard Deviations and Differences of the Fraternity, Non-Graduate Group

Subject	N	Mean	P.E.	S.D.	P.E.	Diff.	P.E.
Public Speaking	25	77.826	± 1.550	11.024	± 1.096	− .867	± 1.743
Exp. Composition	29	76.457	± 1.343	10.726	± .950	− 1.770	± 1.966
Physics	34	72.941	± 1.239	10.715	± .876	− 1.207	± 1.425
Lab. Physics	12	81.667	± 1.340	6.880	± .947	.562	± 1.506
Money and Banking	68	75.993	± .722	8.833	± .511	1.072	± 1.255
Prin. of Economics	81	75.031	± .731	9.752	± .517	− 1.849	± 1.691
Calculus	9	73.333	± 2.594	11.539	± 1.834	− .199	± 2.811
Genetics	4	70.000	± 4.130	12.247	± 2.921	6.316	± 4.403
Biology	13	77.692	± 1.494	7.988	± 1.057	− 4.359	± 1.938
English Literature	60	77.625	± .807	9.269	± .571	1.171	± 1.769
Spanish	48	78.802	± 1.308	13.440	± .925	− 1.719	± 3.254
Elementary German	5	80.000	± 1.908	6.325	± 1.349	2.222	± 2.374
Advanced German	21	83.095	± 1.403	9.532	± .992	.876	± 1.683
Advanced French	39	79.487	± 1.083	10.025	± .766	1.171	± 1.893
Med. and Modern History	27	77.685	± 1.311	10.102	± .927	2.315	± 1.727
Psychology	18	82.639	± 1.867	11.742	± 1.320	− 3.056	± 3.862

TABLE IX

SOPHOMORE SUBJECTS—COLLEGE OF ARTS AND SCIENCES, MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS AND DIFFERENCES OF THE FRATERNITY, GRADUATE GROUP

Subject	N	Mean	P.E.	S.D.	P.E.	Diff.	P.E.
Public Speaking	78	81.827	± .584	7.652	± .413	2.144	± 1.754
Exp. Composition	63	82.302	± .771	9.067	± .545	−1.833	± 2.361
Lab. Physics	90	83.056	± .525	7.387	± .371	1.006	± 1.887
Physics	88	73.807	± .776	10.793	± .549	2.006	± 1.833
Money and Banking	127	79.469	± .544	9.088	± .385	− .556	± 1.741
Prin. of Economics	141	78.972	± .494	8.693	± .349	1.236	± 1.382
Calculus	45	77.722	± 1.468	14.601	± 1.038	7.278	± 1.966
Genetics	5	89.500	± 1.680	5.568	± 1.188		
Biology	29	79.828	± 1.119	9.495	± .841	−3.161	± 2.829
Eng. Literature	124	80.605	± .562	9.276	± .397	− .034	± 1.213
Spanish	87	83.764	± .733	10.135	± .518	3.597	± 1.697
Elem. German	9	77.778	± 2.548	11.335	± 1.802	6.222	± 3.509
Adv. German	72	85.883	± .716	9.009	± .506	.542	± 1.708
Adv. French	90	85.000	± .685	9.632	± .484	.323	± 1.332
Med. and Mod. History	67	83.657	± .516	6.258	± .365	.290	± 1.193
Psychology	74	81.607	± 1.123	14.325	± .794	−1.307	± 1.469

errors of the differences; namely—public speaking, physics, calculus, biology, Spanish and elementary German. Of these differences, that in calculus of 7.27 appears decidedly significant in favor of the non-fraternity group. The differences in Spanish of 3.59 and elementary German of 6.62 are also in favor of the non-fraternity men. The probable errors of these, especially of the latter, make the validity of this tendency doubtful.

Figure II shows clearly the interlocking of the four groups considered above. In general

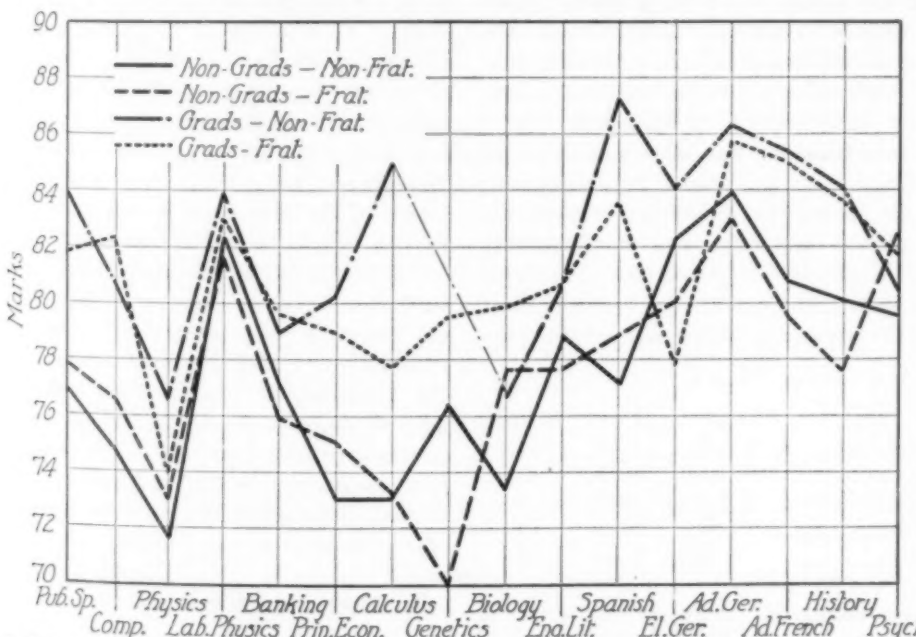

FIG. 2. Mean Achievement of Fraternity and Non-Fraternity Groups in the Sophomore Subjects of the College of Arts and Sciences.

TABLE X

Cumulative Marks

Classification	Non-Fraternity N	Non-Fraternity Mean P.E.	Fraternity N	Fraternity Mean P.E.
Fresh. Subjects	7,663	78.944 ± .009	10,925	78.519 ± .007
Arts College	1,483	78.849 ± .020	2,733	80.303 ± .013
Technology	3,051	78.977 ± 0.13	6,965	78.840 ± .008
Agriculture	1,046	82.624 ± .021	2,308	80.631 ± .013
Totals	13,243	79.231 ± .007	22,931	79.042 ± .005

the lines of each group show the non-graduates to be inferior in scholastic achievement to the students who graduated. The over-lapping of fraternity and non-fraternity men, however, reveals that there is no apparent fraternity environmental relation to the scholastic standing of the arts and science students during their sophomore year.

Computations similar to those for the College of Arts and Sciences were also made for the College of Agriculture and the College of Technology. Since there is no apparent difference between the results of these three colleges further detailed data will not be given here. Yet it may be of value to bring all these data together. Table X is presented showing the means and their probable errors for the cumulative marks of the freshman subjects for the university and the sophomore subjects of each college, both fraternity and non-fraternity figures being distinguished.

An examination of this table stimulates interest in a further analysis of the data it contains. By taking the differences between the means of the fraternity and non-fraternity groups, the probable errors of these differences and the ratio between the differences and their probable errors, the following results are secured:

	D.	$P.E._D$	$D/P.E._D$
Fresh. Subjects	.425	.0114	37
Arts College	−1.454	.0238	61
Technology	.137	.0152	9
Agriculture	1.993	.0246	81
Totals	.189	.0086	22

From a statistical standpoint the writer is somewhat puzzled in seeking an interpretation of the apparent discrepancy between these figures and those secured from a detailed analysis of the marks received by fraternity and non-fraternity men in the various subjects. A strictly mathematical interpretation of the cumulative data would lead one to believe that the non-fraternity men are significantly superior to the fraternity men in freshman subjects, in the sophomore subjects of the Colleges of Technology and Agriculture and in the total for all the marks studied. For the sophomore subjects of the Arts College the reverse appears to be true since the difference in favor of the fraternity men is 61 times as great as its probable error.

Guided by common sense, however, one must immediately recognize that the actual differences are insignificant as shown in the detailed study. As a result of totaling such a large number of marks the probable errors of the differences become so small that it makes the differences themselves appear significant. Boring[3] has aptly said that "these measures of 'significance' are actually only descriptive accounts of the differences in relation to its dispersion and to the number of cases involved."

The conclusion of this study, then, needs no further emphasis as an essential difference was not found to exist between the marks of the fraternity men and the non-fraternity men at the University of Maine. Since this fact is derived from such a comprehensive set of figures extending over a period of eleven years it at least suggests that a fraternity environment does not affect the scholastic achievement of the average college student.

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[3] Boring, E. G., *American Journal of Psychology*, 37, p. 303, 1926.